1789

A SHORT GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE;

WHEREBY

A Stranger may ſoon and eaſily acquaint himſelf with its Principles, and learn to ſpeak Engliſh properly.

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To the New Edition of which, now publiſhed, this GRAMMAR, and other conſiderable Improvements, are added.

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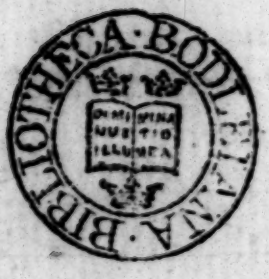

A SHORT

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

The INTRODUCTION.

IT is generally ſuppoſed there is more difficulty in acquiring the Engliſh, than almoſt any other living language. And as pronunciation is included in that acquiſition; the ſuppoſition ſeems to be well founded: For the many different ſounds of our vowels, and our many quieſcent letters; almoſt all of them incapable of being reduced to uſeful general rules; cauſe difficulties in learning Engliſh, hardly felt in learning other languages; for ſurmounting which, I humbly hope it will be allowed by candid judges, that together with the opportunity of converſing in Engliſh, this Dictionary is a ſuitable, and adequate aſſiſtance; every literal ſound of the language being intelligibly deſcribed, and diſtinctly ſignified in it; by the help of which, an induſtrious youth might, with practicable attention in ſpeaking, and hearing, conquer theſe difficulties in leſs than a month; though he could not, without it, it is highly probable, in a much longer time.

But though ſtrangers have the difficulties of pronunciation to ſurmount in learning Engliſh,

now rendered much more vanquiſhable by this help, than they were before; they will meet with much fewer difficulties, in learning the principles, and grounds of this, than of moſt other languages; and particularly than in learning the French, as will appear by theſe obſervations.

1. All nouns in French are maſculine, or feminine; and their genders muſt be known, and expreſt, in uſing them properly; which to be able to do, even with the moſt comprehenſive rules, it will coſt the learner a great deal of labour, and pains; but in Engliſh, moſt nouns are of no gender at all, except thoſe which ſignify intelligent beings; and a few other living creatures, whoſe genders are very obvious; and need but little pains to learn, or recollect them.

2. Almoſt all French adjectives have four different terminations; two for the ſingular number, and two for the plural; which muſt be known, and made to agree with the genders, and numbers of their reſpective nouns, both in ſpeaking and writing; which to be able to do, will alſo coſt the learner a prodigious deal of pains; whereas Engliſh adjectives do not at all vary their terminations, either for genders, or numbers; but in their poſitive degree, always continue the ſame; as in theſe expreſſions: A good man, the good woman; good men, the good women. So that the learning, and uſe of them to a ſtranger, is comparatively a very eaſy matter.

3. Upon inſpecting a French regular verb, you will find its different terminations to amount to forty-two; but the different terminations of an Engliſh regular verb do not exceed ſeven; ſo that for every different termination of an Engliſh verb, a ſtranger has ſix terminations to learn, and retain, of a French verb. Add to this, that the French have four different forms of their regular verbs,

each form having many terminations, different from thoſe of the other forms: Whereas the Engliſh have only one form of a regular verb; and while the French have a great number of irregular verbs, which vary much from the regular; hardly any of the Engliſh irregular verbs vary from the regular, more than by two or three terminations: (ſee the Grammar, on irregular Verbs). And whereas the different terminations of the two French auxiliary verbs, *avoir* and *ſuis*, amount to between ninety and an hundred; all the terminations of our auxiliaries, (eight or nine in number) do not exceed forty. How much eaſier a matter then, is it to learn the Engliſh, than the French verbs?

4. There is a much greater number of idioms in the French, than in the Engliſh language; or particular ways of ſpeaking, peculiar to themſelves; differing, not only from thoſe of other countries, but ſometimes from the general rules of language.

By theſe obſervations (and many more of the like kind might be made) it appears, that it is much more difficult, and laborious, to learn, and retain the French, than the Engliſh language; and after the pronunciation of both is learnt; that a perſon might learn Engliſh, in leſs than half the time, that he could French.

And now after exerting my endeavours to produce a ſuitable aſſiſtance, for acquiring a right Engliſh pronunciation; I would alſo exhibit ſome aid for acquiring the knowledge, and uſe of the language itſelf, by

A GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

GRAMMAR in general teaches the art of conveying our thoughts to one another, in proper language; therefore Engliſh Grammar teaches to convey our thoughts, in proper Engliſh.

Grammar conſiſts of four parts. The firſt treats of Letters; the ſecond, of Words; the third, of Sentences; and the fourth, of Verſification.

PART I.

Of LETTERS.

THE Engliſh uſe twenty-ſix letters as ſigns of thirty-ſeven diſtinctly different literal ſounds.

The twenty-ſix letters are theſe, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

Theſe letters are divided into vowels, and conſonants.

The ſix following are vowels, or letters, utterable by the voice, without the help of a conſonant; a, e, i, o, u, y; of which, y is redundant; all it's ſounds being ſignified by i; and one of the ſounds of i is alſo redundant; for the word *imaginary* ſounds exactly as if it were ſpelt *e*-mág*e*-n*a*-r*e*.

Theſe ſix vowels not only denote the five long ſounds, expreſt by the names of the five firſt of them, as they are commonly pronounced in and about

about London; but they alſo denote the following vocal ſounds, diſtinctly different from them; viz. ā broad, as in āll; a ſhort, as in that; and ā long acute, as in fāther: e ſhort, as in ell; i ſhort, as in it; o ſhort, as in on; ō long acute, as in clōths; ū round, as in fūll; and u ſhort, as in but. All which, together with the five neceſſary long vowels, firſt above-mentioned, make fourteen diſtinct Engliſh vowels.

Diphthongs are two vowels, making but one continued ſound; beginning with that of the firſt vowel; and ending, without interrupting the voice, with that of the laſt; of which, beſides the long *i*, and *u* often ſignified by eu, (which, in reſpect of their ſounds, are properly diphthongs) there are only three more in the Engliſh language, viz. ie, oi, and ou; tho' various ways denoted. Many double-lettered vowels have been called improper diphthongs; but improperly indeed; for they have only the ſound of one of their vowels; as the ea, in head; the oa in road, &c.

The remaining twenty letters, and y before a vowel, are conſonants; ſo called, becauſe they ſound with the vowels; and indeed cannot well be uttered without one.

Of theſe twenty-one conſonants, the following are redundant; hard and ſoft c, ſoft g, q, ſoft s, and hard and ſoft x: for their ſounds might be equally well ſignified, that of hard c, and q, by k; of ſoft c, by hard s; of ſoft g, by j; of ſoft s, by z; and thoſe of hard and ſoft x, by ks, and gz. Theſe following double-letter'd conſonants are alſo redundant, French ch, as in chaiſe, which might be ſignified by ſh; and Greek ph, by f.

Beſides the ſimple ſounds of the neceſſary ſingle conſonants, diſtinctly different ſimple ſounds are ſignified by theſe double conſonants, ch, ſh, hard th, ſoft th, and zh; or the ſound of French j.

The following is a compleat alphabet of all the literal ſounds of the Engliſh language.

a, *ā*, a, ā, b, d, *e*, e, f, g, h, *i*, i, j, k, l, m, n, *o*, o, ō, p, r, s, t, *u*, *ū*, u, v, w, y, z, ch, ſh, th, *th*, zh.

If we were to reject all the ſuperfluous letters, and to uſe only theſe neceſſary ones; a moſt perplexing labour, both to teachers, and children, in learning to ſpell, and read Engliſh, would be prevented; moſt that ſpeak juſtly, could alſo ſpell exactly; and reading according to ſuch ſpelling, the exact pronunciation would be both known, and preſerved: but there are ſo many difficulties in the way of ſuch a reformation of our ſpelling, that it is hardly to be expected.

Of letters are formed ſyllables, and words; for a, I, and O, are words themſelves; and a very great number of ſingle ſyllables are alſo Engliſh words; which words are therefore called monoſyllables.

A ſyllable conſiſts of a ſound, compoſed of all the ſounds of its ſounded letters; beginning, and proceeding in the order, in which thoſe letters ſtand in it; and it may have from one, to nine letters in it; as in theſe monoſyllables, a, to, for, from, grand, things, ſtrains, ſtrength, ſtreights.

Words may conſiſt of any number of ſyllables, from one to ſeven; as in man, fā-ther, míght-*i*-er, próſ-per-ouſ-ly, per-*pe*-*tú*-*i*-ty, tran-ſub-ſtan-*ti*-*á*-tion, con-ſub-ſtan-*ti*-ál-*i*-ty.

In words of more ſyllables than one, there is always an accented ſyllable, which ſhould be ſounded ſtronger than the reſt; as in the laſt-mentioned examples. The accents are, through cuſtom, laid ſo arbitrarily, that few general rules can be given about them, but what will have ſome exceptions. However the following will be found amongſt

amongſt the moſt comprehenſive. 1. If the word be primitive, the accent is commonly upon the firſt ſyllable; as in próſ-per, tén-der. 2. If it conſiſt of a prepoſition, and primitive; and have, or have not a termination; the primitive is commonly accented; as in pre-ſcríbe, de-ſcrí-bing. 3. If the ſame word is both a noun, and a verb; the accent is frequently, but not always, on the firſt ſyllable of the noun; and on the following, of the verb; as in ác-cent, the noun; and ac-cént, the verb; cóm-pound, the noun; and com-poúnd, the verb. 4. The ſyllables preceding the terminations cian, cial, tial, ſion, tion, cious, tious, ical, and ity, are always accented; though without theſe terminations, the accents of their primitives are often on a preceding ſyllable; as in phy-ſíci-an, bén-*e*-fíci-al, im-pár-tial, pro-víſi-on, pre-ſer-vá-tion, grá-cious, pro-píti-ous, po-lít-*i*-cal, ca-pác-*i*-ty, prob-*a*-bíl-*i*-ty.

PART II.

Of WORDS.

ALL words made uſe of in ſpeech, are either articles, nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, prepoſitions, interjections, or conjunctions.

I. The Articles are ſet before nouns to ſignify the extent of the ſenſe, in which they are uſed. The indefinite article *a*, before a conſonant; or *an*, before a vowel, ſignifies one of the kind, without determining which one; as a man, an eagle. The definite article *the* ſignifies one particular of the kind, ſpoken of, excluding others; as the man, the eagle; i. e. that is ſpoken of, or referred to.

to. The indefinite article a, or an, is ſometimes ſet before plural words; as a many, a few, an hundred; but it gives them the form of collective nouns of the ſingular number. The indefinite plural, which ſignifies *ſome* indeterminately, has no article; as in this expreſſion, *men live there*; i. e. ſome men, without ſignifying who: But *the* is the plural definite article, as well as the ſingular; as in this ſentence: The man, or the men, who fear God, will work righteouſneſs. A noun in the ſingular number without an article, is collective; and ſignifies all of the kind. E. g. *Man is born to trouble*, i. e. all men. Though proper names do not properly take an article before them, in the ſingular number, yet they do in the plural; for we ſay the Two Scipios, the Twelve Cæſars. If *the* preceeds them in the ſingular, it is the article of the word ſhip, or inn, or ſign, or river, &c. underſtood; as the George, the Shakeſpear's Head, the Thames.

The article *the* is ſometimes ſet before adverbs in the comparative degree, where it more diſtinctly points out the compariſon; thus, The oftener you read, you will read the better.

II. A Noun is the proper, or the common name of a perſon, or thing. Proper names of perſons are, Geōrge, *Ch*arlotte, &c. of things, the T*h*ames, Sn*o*wdon, &c. Common names of perſons are, a man, a woman, &c. of things, a river, a hill, a houſe, a horſe, a hat, &c.

A Noun may be known by making ſenſe with an adjective, ſuch as the word good, bad, right, wrong, &c. Thus, in the expreſſions, a good man, a bad horſe, a right line, a bad action; the words man, horſe, line, action, are ſeen to be nouns; becauſe they make ſenſe with their accompanying adjectives.

Some

Some nouns are diſtinguiſhed by their genders, or ſexes. Creatures of the male kind are often of the maſculine gender; and in the ſingular number, are ſignified by the pronoun he, or him. Thoſe of the female kind are alſo often of the feminine gender, and ſignified by ſhe, or her; and nouns of neither ſex, or when their ſexes are not particularly intended, are of no gender at all; and are expreſt, in the ſingular number, by the neutral pronoun *it*. But excepting thoſe, which denote intelligent beings, and thoſe whoſe ſexes we would particularly expreſs; moſt nouns in Engliſh, are of no gender at all: For we apply the neutral pronoun it, not only to things without life; e. g. the mountain, it ſtands; the river, it flows; but alſo to moſt animals, if we do not particularly intend to expreſs their ſexes; thus we ſay of the horſe, it carries; of the ox, it labours; of the bird, it flies; and of the fiſh, it ſwims. If we would particularly expreſs the ſexes of animals; we uſe the nouns appropriated to their ſexes, if there be any; ſuch as horſe, for the male; mare, for the female; and ſo bull, and cow; buck, and doe; cock, and hen; and the pronouns he, and ſhe, while the intimation of their ſexes is continued. And if a ſpecies has only one common name, for both ſexes; both are diſtinguiſhed, by prefixing to that name, the words he, and ſhe; or the male, and female deſignations of ſome other ſpecies. Thus we ſay a he, or jack aſs, a ſhe aſs; a he, or buck rabbit; a ſhe, or doe rabbit; and ſo a he, or cock pheaſant; a ſhe, or hen pheaſant, &c.

Nouns have generally two numbers, the ſingular, and plural. The ſingular number denotes only one of the kind ſpoken of; as a man, the angel. The plural number ſignifies more than one of the ſame kind; as men, the men; angels, the angels.

The

The plural is commonly formed by adding s, or es, to the ſingular number; or by changing y, into ies; as dukes, lords, churches, juries; which are the plurals of duke, lord, church, jury.

However ſome nouns have their plurals otherwiſe formed, as in the following table.

Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Man	Men	Knife	Knives	Dye	Dice
Woman	Women	Life	Lives	Foot	Feet
Child	Children	Loaf	Loaves	Gooſe	Geeſe
Brother	Brethren	Leaf	Leaves	Louſe	Lice
Ox	Oxen	Wife	Wives	Mouſe	Mice
Penny	Pence	Thief	Thieves	Sow	Swine
				Tooth	Teeth

Some nouns are the ſame in both numbers; as ſheep, ſingular and plural; and ſo fiſh, grain, &c. which have alſo fiſhes, grains, in the plural. And ſome nouns are chiefly uſed in the plural; as bellows, breeches, means, &c.

Nouns alſo take after them an 's, with an apoſtrophe, to ſignify the genitive, or poſſeſſive caſe; which nouns, upon bringing the following word before them, may always be rendered by of, as in theſe expreſſions, A man's head, or the head of a man; the nation's glory, or the glory of the nation.

The Latin and Greek Grammarians have declined nouns by caſes, which they call the nominative, the genitive, the dative, the accuſative, the vocative, and (which the Latins have added) the ablative. The diſtinguiſhing theſe caſes by theſe, or ſome ſuch names, was neceſſary in teaching Latin, and Greek; both to ſignify the particular terminations of nouns; and alſo their particular meanings, with thoſe terminations; as in the following example of a Latin noun, according to which, the Engliſh noun ſignified by it, or any other,

other, might, in reſpect of its caſes, be declined in the manner here repreſented.

Sing.		Plur.	
Nom.	Rex, *a King.*	Nom.	Reges, *Kings.*
Gen.	Regis, *of a King.*	Gen.	Regum, *of Kings.*
Dat.	Regi, *to a King.*	Dat.	Regibus, *to Kings.*
Ac.	Regem, *a King.*	Ac.	Reges, *Kings.*
Voc.	Rex, *O King.*	Voc.	Reges, *O Kings.*
Abl.	Rege, *with, from, in, or by a King.*	Abl.	Regibus, *with, from, in, or by Kings.*

In like manner *the King* might be declined thus, Nom. The King. Gen. Of the King. Dat. To the King. Ac. The King. Voc. O King. Abl. With, from, in, or by the King. Nom. Plur. The Kings. Gen. Of the Kings. Dat. To the Kings. Ac. The Kings. Voc. O Kings. Abl. With, from, in, or by the Kings.

But Engliſh nouns, having no caſual terminations, except the poſſeſſive s; and their caſes being ſufficiently knowable by their conſtructions in ſentences, and their prepoſitions, without diſtinguiſhing them by theſe Latin names; and as the application of theſe names of caſes to Engliſh nouns, cauſes much perplexity, in learning Engliſh; eſpecially to thoſe who are unacquainted with Latin Grammar; and even ſometimes to the learned themſelves; Engliſh, and Latin caſes, not always correſponding: For theſe reaſons, no other diſtinction of caſes, in learning Engliſh, ſeems neceſſary, than to call the nominative caſe by that name; (which ſignifies the caſe, by which we name the noun) and all the other, the oblique caſes; becauſe in ſome reſpects declining, or differing from the nominative: And even this diſtinction is no where neceſſary but in the uſe of the perſonal pronouns, as will hereafter appear.

III. Ad-

III. Adjectives denote the properties of nouns, and may be known to be ſuch, by making ſenſe, when join'd with nouns; as in theſe expreſſions, A wiſe man, an amiable woman, a precious thing. The obvious ſenſe, conveyed by their connection with theſe nouns, man, woman, thing, ſufficiently indicates that the words wiſe, amiable, and precious, are adjectives.

Engliſh adjectives undergo no terminational variation, in their poſitive degree, or ſimple ſtate; either for expreſſing genders, numbers, or caſes; or for any other purpoſe: But moſt adjectives of one, or two ſyllables vary their termination by er, to ſignify their comparative degree; and by eſt, their ſuperlative. Thus the adjectives pure, and mighty, in the poſitive degree, have púrer, míghtier, in their comparative degree; and pureſt, mightieſt, in their ſuperlative: But if an adjective in the poſitive degree exceeds two ſyllables; its comparative is formed by ſetting the word *more* before it; and its ſuperlative, the word *moſt*; thus we ſay judicious, more judicious, moſt judicious; and not judiciouſer, judiciouſeſt. And indeed theſe adverbs more, and moſt, may properly form the comparative, and ſuperlative degrees of the ſhorteſt, as well as of the longeſt worded adjectives; for you may ſay ſafe, more ſafe, moſt ſafe; as well as ſafe, ſafer, ſafeſt. Yet,

There are a few adjectives, whoſe degrees of compariſon are more irregularly formed; and it is remarkable that the degrees of the ſame adjectives in Latin, and Greek, are, at leaſt, as irregular; viz. the following,

Poſ.	Comp.	Superl.	Poſ.	Comp.	Superl.
Good	Better	Beſt	Little	Leſs	Leaſt
Bad	Worſe	Worſt	Much	More	Moſt

IV. Pro-

IV. Pronouns are uſed to denote perſons, and things; to prevent a tireſome repetition of their names; for which reaſon they are called pronouns; which ſignify words uſed for, or in the place of nouns, or names.

The perſonal pronouns, with reference to the verb, are, I, for the firſt perſon ſingular; thou, for the ſecond; he, ſhe, or it, for the third; we, for the firſt perſon plural; ye, more rarely, and you more commonly, for the ſecond; and they for the third.

The nominative of the firſt perſon, is *I*; all its other, or oblique caſes ſingular, are *me*, with its caſual prepoſitions; as of me, to me, me, with, from, in, or by me: and the nominative caſe of the firſt perſon plural, is *we*; all its oblique caſes are *us*, with its prepoſitions; as of us, to us, us, with us.

The nominative of the ſecond perſon, and vocative (i. e. the caſe, by which we call upon, or addreſs) is *thou*; all its oblique caſes are expreſs'd by *thee*, with its caſual prepoſitions; as of thee, to thee, thee, with, from, in, or by thee. The nominative, and vocative of the ſecond perſon plural, is *ye*, or *you*; its oblique caſes are *you*, with its prepoſitions, as of you, to you, &c.

The nominatives of the third perſon ſingular are, *he*, for the maſculine gender; *ſhe*, for the feminine; and *it*, for the neutral noun; all their oblique caſes are formed by *him*, maſculine; *her*, feminine; and *it*, neutral, with their prepoſitions; as of him, of her, of it; to him, to her, to it, &c. The nominative of the third perſon plural, is *they*; its oblique caſes are expreſſed by *them*, and its caſual prepoſitions, as of them, to them, &c.

The demonſtrative pronoun *this*, in the ſingular, has *theſe* in the plural, without any variation, except by their prepoſitions, in their oblique caſes; as of this, of theſe; to this, to theſe. So likewiſe

the demonſtrative pronoun *that*, in the ſingular, has *thoſe* in the plural, with their caſual prepoſitions, for their oblique caſes.

The relative *who* is both maſculine and feminine; and it is both ſingular and plural, in its nominative; but in its oblique caſes, it has *whom*, both in the ſingular and plural; as of whom, to whom, whom, &c.

The relative *which* is neutral, relating to nouns that have no gender; it is both ſingular and plural; and undergoes no variation in its numbers, or caſes, except what is made by its prepoſitions.

The relative *that* is often uſed for who, whom, and which. E. g. The man that reads, for who reads; the man that I ſaw, for whom I ſaw; the houſe that he built, for which he built; the men that were there, for who were there. This relative *that* continues the ſame both in its ſingular and plural numbers, and alſo in its nominatives, and oblique caſes. N. B. Beſides the demonſtrative and relative *that*, there is alſo *that* the conjunction; as in this expreſſion, He went that he might ſee.

Its, ours, whoſe, yours, and theirs, ſeem to be the genitives, or poſſeſſive caſes of it, our, who, your, their.

What is an interrogative pronoun of all genders, caſes, and numbers; and is only varied by its caſual prepoſitions thus, of what, to what, &c. as in theſe examples, What man did it? What woman ſaid it? What motives produced it?—— Yet ſometimes it is not an interrogative, but properly ſignifies the thing that, or which. E. g. What he aims at, is obvious to all; i. e. the thing that, or which he aims at, &c.

V. The verb is neceſſary in all ſentences; for none can be ſpoken, in which one is not expreſs'd, or

or underſtood; it has the greateſt number of accidents, and it requires more pains to learn it, than any other word: On all which accounts, it is called the verb, or the word of a ſentence, by way of eminence. It denotes the ſtate, or action, paſſion or paſſiveneſs of its nominative caſe going before it; as in theſe expreſſions, Wiſdom is good, a wiſe man learns, a book is read; where is good, learns, and is read, are verbs; and wiſdom, a man, and a book, are their nominative caſes. And that word in a ſentence, denoting exiſtence, ſtate, action, or paſſion; which makes ſenſe with a noun, or with any of the perſonal pronouns, I, thou, he, is a verb. Thus write, viſits, reads, is eſteemed, are verbs in theſe expreſſions, I write, ſhe viſits, he reads, virtue is eſteemed.

To verbs belong voices, perſons, numbers, tenſes, moods, participles, and gerunds.

1. Verbs have two general forms, called voices; the one the active voice, the other the paſſive. In the active, the agent or nominative caſe is repreſented as acting, or doing the thing ſignified by the verb; as in theſe expreſſions, I read, he writes, they imitate. In the paſſive voice the nominative caſe is expreſs'd as acted upon, paſſive, or bearing the action ſignified by the verb; as in theſe, I am read, he is written, they are imitated.

2. To verbs belong numbers. The ſingular number expreſſes only one agent, or patient; as he loves, he is loved; and the plural denotes more than one, as we love, they are loved.

3. The ſingular and plural numbers of verbs have each three perſons, or nominative caſes. The three perſons for the ſingular number are, I, or the perſon who ſpeaks, for the firſt perſon; thou, or the perſon ſpoken to, for the ſecond; and he, ſhe, or it, the perſon, or thing ſpoken of, for the third. In like manner the plural number has alſo

three perſons, or nominative caſes; we, or the ſpeaker and thoſe on his part, for the firſt perſon; ye, or more commonly you, or the perſons ſpoken to, for the ſecond; and they, or the perſons or things ſpoken of, for the third.—By adding theſe perſonal pronouns to any verb, you form its numbers, and perſons. E. g. if you ſet I before the verb love, and ſay I love, you form the firſt perſon ſingular; if you ſay thou loveſt, you form the ſecond; he loveth, or loves, the third; we love, the firſt perſon plural, you love, the ſecond; and they love, the third.

In theſe laſt examples you may obſerve four terminations of the verb itſelf; viz. love, loveſt, loveth, loves; and no Engliſh regular verb has any more than theſe four, and three terminations more; viz. loved, the paſſive participle, and active perfect tenſe; lovedſt, for the ſecond perſon ſingular of the ſame tenſe; and loving, for the preſent active participle, and gerund.

4. The tenſes, or times of a verb are principally three; the preſent, the perfect, or fully paſt; and the future. Thus I love, is the preſent tenſe; I loved, or have loved, the perfect; and I ſhall, or will love, is the future tenſe.

But in ſpeaking of the paſt action, or paſſion of the verb, we have often occaſion, not only to ſignify it is fully paſt; in which caſe, we uſe the perfect tenſe; but alſo that that paſt action, or paſſion was a doing, or bearing at the time another thing was a doing; in which caſe, we uſe the imperfect tenſe; ſo called, becauſe the action, or paſſion was then imperfect as to time; being a doing, but not finiſhed. E. g. He ſtudied, or did ſtudy philoſophy when I firſt entered the colledge.——We have alſo often occaſion to ſpeak of a paſt action, or paſſion, as done, or borne, and finiſhed, before another was begun; and then we uſe

uſe the preterpluperfect, or pluſquamperfect tenſe; which ſignifies the more than paſt time, being not only paſt when ſpoken of, but paſt before a paſt action was begun; as in this ſentence, he had read Horace, before I began Cordery. He had been praiſed, long before that action.

The future tenſe is expreſſed by ſhall, and will; thus, I ſhall, or will love; I ſhall, or will be loved; &c. Upon the uſe of which ſhall, and will, we may obſerve, that *ſhall* in the firſt perſon, both ſingular and plural only denotes the futurity of the action, or paſſion, ſignified by the verb; but in the ſame perſons, *will* implies, not only their futurity; but alſo a promiſe or threatening, that they ſhall be. In the ſecond, and third perſons, both ſingular and plural, *ſhall* denotes a Command, or ſome neceſſity inforcing their future Exiſtence; whereas, in the ſame perſons, *will* only ſignifies their futurity.

5. The moods of a verb are thoſe particular forms of it, whereby, 1. we directly ſhew what is ſignified by the verb, which we do by the indicative mood, *as I love, I am loved*, &c. or 2. whereby we expreſs a wiſh for, or the poſſibility, or condition, or end of the thing, ſignified by the verb; which we do by the ſubjunctive mood; ſo called; becauſe it is often ſubjoined to a preceding ſentence, or verb; which mood is ſometimes, in reſpect to the wiſh, called the optative mood; and in reſpect of the poſſibility, the potential mood; as in theſe expreſſions, *O that I may love, I may or can love, if I love, that I may love.*—— Or it is a form of the verb whereby 3dly, we command, entreat or pray for the thing ſignified by it; thus, *love thou, let him be loved, give us, pardon me*; and this is called the imperative mood—And 4thly, whereby we ſimply intimate the thing ſignified by the verb, as preſent, paſt, or to come; without limiting its ſignification

by perſons or numbers. And this is called the infinitive mood. E. g. *To love, to have or had loved, to be about to love.* N. B. It is by the preſent infinitive that we commonly expreſs the meaning of our verbs.

6. To verbs belong participles ſo called becauſe they partake of the nature, both of a verb, and an adjective; agreeing with nouns juſt as adjectives do; and at the ſame time, like verbs, expreſſing the action, paſſion, and tenſes of the verb to which they belong. The preſent active participle is ſignified by the termination *ing*, as loving; and the perfect paſſive participle moſt generally by the termination *ed*, as loved; which is alſo moſt commonly the ſame word with the active perfect. Thus the word *loved* is the active perfect in the expreſſion *he loved wiſdom*; but it is the perfect participle in this, *he is loved by all.* Once more

7. The gerund (perhaps ſo called a gerendo, becauſe it bears the nature of a noun) denotes the action of a verb under the notion of a noun of the ſingular number, having the ſame caſual prepoſitions that a noun has. E. g. *Loving, of loving, to loving, with, from, in, or by loving.*

For fully declining our verbs, the following auxiliary verbs are abſolutely neceſſary; viz. do, let, muſt, have, ſhall, will, may, can, and am.

Do, let, have, and will, are complete verbs themſelves; and if no part of other verbs accompany them; then they are principals, and not auxiliaries. May, can, ſhall, and muſt, are defective verbs; no other part of them being in uſe in Engliſh, but thoſe that are uſed in the following example of a compleat verb. There being no more of may, but *might*; of can, but could, of ſhall, but ſhould; and muſt being invariably the ſame, and only uſed in the preſent indicative, both active, and paſſive, I muſt love, thou muſt love, &c. I

muſt

muſt be loved, thou muſt be loved, &c. and in the perfect of the ſubjunctive, both active and paſſive; I muſt have loved, thou muſt have loved; I muſt have been loved, thou muſt have been loved, &c.

How theſe auxiliaries ſhould be uſed to form a compleat Engliſh verb, will appear in the following example of ſuch a verb, both in the active, and paſſive voices.

The Verb
To love
In the active voice is thus declined.

The Indicative Mood.

The Preſent Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I love, or do love.	1. We love, or do love.
2. Thou loveſt, or doſt love.	2. Ye, or you love, or do love.
3. He, ſhe, or it loveth, loves, or does love.	3. They love, or do love.

The Imperfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I loved, or did love.	1. We loved, or did love.
2. Thou lovedſt, or didſt love.	2. You loved, or did love.
3. He loved, or did love.	3. They loved, or did love.

The Perfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I loved, or have loved.	1. We loved, or have loved.
2. Thou lovedſt, or haſt loved.	2. You loved, or have loved.
3. He loved, or hath, or has loved.	3. They loved, or have loved.

The

The Plu-perfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I had loved.	1. We had loved.
2. Thou hadſt loved.	2. You had loved.
3. He had loved.	3. They had loved.

The Future Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I ſhall, or will love.	1. We ſhall, or will love.
2. Thou ſhalt, or wilt love.	2. You ſhall, or will love.
3. He ſhall, or will love.	3. They ſhall, or will love.

The Subjunctive Mood.

The Preſent Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I may, or can love.	1. We may, or can love.
2. Thou mayſt, or canſt love.	2. You may, or can love
3. He may, or can love.	3. They may, or can love.

The Imperfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I might, could, would, or ſhould love.	1. We might, could, would, or ſhould love.
2. Thou mighteſt, couldeſt, would-eſt, or ſhouldeſt love.	2. You might, could, would, or ſhould love.
3. He might, could, would, or ſhould love.	3. They might, could, would, or ſhould love.

The

The Perfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I may have loved.	1. We may have loved.
2. Thou mayeſt have loved.	2. You may have loved.
3. He may have loved.	3. They may have loved.

The Plu-perfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had loved.	1. We might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had loved.
2. Thou mighteſt, couldeſt, wouldeſt, or ſhouldeſt have, or had loved.	2. You might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had loved.
3. He might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had loved.	3. They might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had loved.

The Future Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I ſhall have loved.	1. We ſhall have loved.
2. Thou ſhalt have loved.	2. You ſhall have loved.
3. He ſhall have loved.	3. They ſhall have loved.

The Imperative Mood.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. Let me love.	1. Let us love.
2. Love thou, or do thou love;	2. Love you, or do you love.
3. Let him love.	3. Let them love.

The Infinitive Mood.

Preſ. To love. —— Perf. To have, or had loved.
Fut. To be about to love.

The

The PARTICIPLES.

Preſ. Loving. —— Fut. About to love.

The GERUNDS.

Loving, of loving, to loving, loving, with, from, in, or by loving.

The Paſſive Voice of the ſame Verb,

To be loved.

The INDICATIVE MOOD.

The Preſent Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I am loved.	1. We are loved.
2. Thou art loved.	2. You are loved.
3. He is loved.	3. They are loved.

The Imperfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I was loved.	1. We were loved.
2. Thou waſt loved.	2. You were loved.
3. He was loved.	3. They were loved.

The Perfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I have been loved.	1. We have been loved.
2. Thou haſt been loved.	2. You have been loved.
3. He hath, or has been loved.	3. They have been loved.

The

The Plu-perfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I had been loved.	1. We had been loved.
2. Thou hadſt been loved.	2. You had been loved.
3. He had been loved.	3. They had been loved.

The Future Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I ſhall, or will be loved.	1. We ſhall, or will be loved.
2. Thou ſhalt, or wilt be loved.	2. You ſhall, or will be loved.
3. He ſhall, or will be loved.	3. They ſhall, or will be loved.

The Subjunctive Mood.

The Preſent Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I may, or can be loved.	1. We may, or can be loved.
2. Thou mayſt, or canſt be loved.	2. You may, or can be loved.
3. He may, or can be loved.	3. They may, or can be loved.

The Imperfect Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. I might, could, would, or ſhould be loved.	1. We might, could, would, or ſhould be loved.
2. Thou mighteſt, couldeſt, would-eſt, or ſhouldeſt be loved.	2. You might, could, would, or ſhould be loved.

3. He

Perſ.	Sing.	Perſ.	Plur.
3.	He might, could, would, or ſhould be loved.	3.	They might, could, would, or ſhould be loved.

The Perfect Tenſe.

Perſ.	Sing.	Perſ.	Plur.
1.	I may have been loved.	1.	We may have been loved.
2.	Thou mayſt have been loved.	2.	You may have been loved.
3.	He may have been loved.	3.	They may have been loved.

The Plu-perfect Tenſe.

Perſ.	Sing.	Perſ.	Plur.
1.	I might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had been loved.	1.	We might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had been loved.
2.	Thou mighteſt, couldeſt, would-eſt, or ſhouldeſt have, or had been loved.	2.	You might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had been loved.
3.	He might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had been loved.	3.	They might, could, would, or ſhould have, or had been loved.

The Future Tenſe.

Perſ.	Sing.	Perſ.	Plur.
1.	I ſhall have been loved.	1.	We ſhall have been loved.
2.	Thou ſhalt have been loved.	2.	You ſhall have been loved.
3.	He ſhall have been loved.	3.	They ſhall have been loved.

The Imperative Mood.

The Preſent Tenſe.

Perſ. Sing.	Perſ. Plur.
1. Let me be loved.	1. Let us be loved.
2. Be thou loved.	2. Be you loved.
3. Let him be loved.	3. Let them be loved.

The Infinitive Mood.

Preſ. To be loved. —— Perf. To have, or had been loved. —— Fut. To be about to be loved.

The Participles.

The Perf. Loved, or being loved.	The Fut. To be loved, or muſt be loved.

Upon the preceding paſſive voice, we may obſerve, that it is wholly made up of the paſſive participle *loved*, and the auxiliary verb *to be*, or *I am*; which auxiliary is declined exactly as in this paſſive voice: ſo that if you go through this voice, without the participle *loved*; you will decline the verb *to be*, or *I am*. Now if inſtead of this participle *loved*, you join to it the paſſive participle of any other verb; you will form the paſſive voice of that verb: E. g. If you ſay *I am feared*, *I was feared*, *I have been feared*, &c. you will form the paſſive voice of the verb *to fear*, and ſo of any other verb.

If to the auxiliary verb *I am*, inſtead of the paſſive participle, you add the active preſent participle; the verb will have an active ſignification, implying the continuance of the action, ſignified by it. A form of ſpeech we have frequently occaſion to uſe. E. g. I am hearing, I am reading, I am thinking, I am ſtudying. The prepoſition *a*, which ſignifies at, or about, is often ſet before this

preſent active participle, and more ſtrongly marks the continuance of the action, thus; I am a ſtudying, a reading, a hearing, &c. Moſt active verbs may be declined in this manner, through all their moods, and tenſes. E. g. I am ſtudying, or a ſtudying; I was ſtudying, I have been ſtudying, I ſhall or will be ſtudying, I may or can be ſtudying, let me be ſtudying, being ſtudying, to be ſtudying, &c.

I have ſaid the paſſive participle is generally the ſame with the active perfect; *Loved* being both the active perfect, as when we ſay, *I loved*; and the perfect paſſive participle, when we ſay, *He is loved by all:* But there are many exceptions to this rule; as there are alſo many to theſe following rules, for forming the active perfect itſelf, viz. that it is formed by adding *ed* to the preſent of the verb, if ending with a conſonant; as in learn, learned; or by turning the final y of the preſent, into *ied*; as in juſtify, juſtified; or by adding *d* to it, if ending with a ſilent e; as in divide, divided. In general the exceptions to theſe rules are old Engliſh, or Saxon verbs, of one ſyllable; of which I ſhall here ſubjoin a table, with their differently formed active perfects, and paſſive participles.

A TABLE

Of irregular ENGLISH VERBS.

The following verbs have their perfects, and participles alike; but not formed according to the preceding rules, except the excepted.

Preſ.	Perf. & Part.	Preſ.	Perf. & Part.
bind	bound	build	built
bleed	bled	buy	bought
bring	brought	breed	bred

catch

Preſ.	Perf. & Part.	Preſ.	Perf. & Part.
catch	caught, *alſo* catched	ſlink	ſlunk
		ſpend	ſpent
dig	dug, *alſo* digged	ſpin	ſpun
		ſend	ſent
feed	fed	ſpring	ſprung
fight	fought	ſtand	ſtood
flee	fled	ſtick	ſtuck
fling	flung	ſwim	ſwum
geld	gelt	ſwing	ſwung
grind	ground	teach	taught
gild	gilt	tell	told
gird	girt	think	thought
loſe	loſt	work	wrought
lend	lent		*alſo* worked
make	made	win	won
meet	met	wind	wound
pay	paid	wring	wrung
rend	rent	awake	awoke
ſay	ſaid		*alſo* awaked
ſeek	ſought	abide	abode
ſell	ſold	beſeech	beſought
ſit	ſat		*alſo* beſeeched
ſhine	ſhone, *alſo* ſhined		

The following preſents have their perfects, and participles different from one another; and neither of them formed according to the preceding general rules, except the excepted.

Preſ.	Perf.	Part.	Preſ.	Perf.	Part.
bear	bore	born	chide	chid	chidden
begin	began	begun		chided	
bid	bade	bidden	chooſe	choſe	choſen
bite	bit	bitten		chooſed	
	alſo bit		cleave	clove	cloven
blow	blew	blown		*alſo* cleft	

Preſ.	Perf.	Part.	Preſ.	Perf.	Part.
come	came	come	ring	rang	rung
creep	crope	crept		rung	
	crept		riſe	roſe	riſen
crow	crew	crow'd	run	ran	run
dare	durſt	dared	ſee	ſaw	ſeen
do	did	done	ſeeth	ſod	ſodden
draw	drew	drawn	ſhake	ſhook	ſhaken
drink	drank	drunk	ſhear	ſhore	ſhorn
drive	drove	driven		ſheared	
eate	ate	eaten	ſhoot	ſhot	ſhotten
fall	fell	fallen	ſhrink	ſhrank	ſhrunk
forſake	forſook	forſaken	ſing	ſang	ſung
fly	flew	flown	ſink	ſank	ſunk
freeze	froze	frozen	ſlay	ſlew	ſlain
get	got	gotten	ſlide	ſlid	ſlidden
	alſo got		ſmite	ſmote	ſmitten
give	gave	given	ſtrike	ſtruck	ſtricken
go	went	gone	ſpeak	ſpoke	ſpoken
grow	grew	grown	ſpit	ſpat	ſpitten
		grow'd	ſtrive	ſtrove	ſtriven
hew	hewed	hewen	ſwear	ſwore	ſworn
		hewn	take	took	taken
hide	hid	hidden	tear	tare	torn
hold	held	holden	thrive	throve	thriven
know	knew	known	throw	threw	thrown
lye	lay	lain	tread	trode	troden
		lein	wear	wore	worn
ride	rode	ridden	weave	wove	woven
	rid		write	wrote	written
				writ	

N. B. Theſe irregular perfects are only uſed in the perfect tenſe; and if you chooſe to expreſs the perfect by *I have*, the word here called the participle muſt be uſed; not the irregular perfect: thus, I knew, or have known; I wrote, or have written; I choſe, or have choſen; &c. Not, I have

have knew, &c. Hence it appears, that theſe paſſive participles are alſo active perfects, with the auxiliary *I have*; or elſe, as ſome eminent writers call them, active perfect participles.

The following verbs are the ſame in the preſent, the perfect, and participle; burſt, caſt, cut, hit, hurt, knit, let, put, rent, rid, ſet, ſhed, ſhred, ſhut, ſlit, ſplit, ſpread, thruſt. E. g. Preſ. It cuts, Perf. It cut, Part. Is cut, and ſo of the reſt.

Of neuter verbs (ſo called, becauſe neither fully active, nor fully paſſive, their ſignifications being generally immanent, and not tranſitive), ſome are only declined like the active voice, ſuch as theſe; to ſit, to ſleep, to ſtand, to run, &c. being declined thus, I ſit, I did ſit, I ſat, or have ſat, &c. Not, I am ſit, I was ſit, &c. Others of theſe neuter verbs are only declined like the paſſive voice; ſuch as, to be ſick, to be lame, to be weary, &c. thus, I am ſick, I was ſick, I have been ſick, &c. Not, I ſick, I did ſick, &c.

There are ſome verbs which are only uſed in the third perſon ſingular, through their various moods and tenſes; and are called impersonal verbs, becauſe it is not a perſon, but a thing that is their nominative caſe, expreſſed by it, ſuch as theſe; it delights, it grieves, it pleaſes, it becomes, &c. Ex. gr. It pleaſes me, it did pleaſe him, it has pleaſed them, it may pleaſe us, it would pleaſe you, &c. and ſo of the reſt.

VI. Adverbs commonly accompany verbs, and therefore they are called adverbs; as they do alſo adjectives, and adverbs; expreſſing the nature, quality, degree, and circumſtances (as to time, place, number, &c.) of the action, or paſſion of the verbs; or of the adjectives, or adverbs, with which they are joined; as in theſe expreſſions, *very well*,

where it is joined to the adverb *well*; *uncommonly prudent*, where it is joined to the adjective *prudent*; *he ſpoke diſtinctly and well*, where *diſtinctly* and *well* are adverbs, accompanying the verb *he ſpoke*, expreſſing the manner and nature of his ſpeaking. —Many adverbs, like adjectives, are capable of degrees of compariſon; thus we ſay, wiſely, more wiſely, moſt wiſely. Very many adverbs are formed of adjectives, by adding the termination *ly* to them; as greatly, powerfully, duly, elegantly, &c.—The deſign of adverbs ſeems to be to expreſs in one word, a property, or circumſtance, which could not be well expreſt without two, or more. Thus, *he acted wiſely*, i. e. with wiſdom; *he reaſoned ſolidly*, i. e. with ſolid arguments. There are various kinds of adverbs. Some of place; as here, there, where. Some of time; as now, then, lately, ſeldom, often. Some of order; as firſt, ſecondly, thirdly, laſtly. Many ſignify quality; as well, badly, bravely, timidly. Some, quantity; as much, little, more, leſs. Some are negative; as no, not, not at all: others are affirmative, as yes, indeed, truly, verily, certainly, &c. &c. &c.

VII. Prepoſitions are ſet before nouns, or pronouns, in their oblique, and never in their nominative caſes. The idea of place is ſuggeſted by moſt of them, and the nouns to which they are prefixed, are ſignified, locally affected, and circumſtanced, by the perſons or things ſpoken of. They are principally theſe following. About, according to, after, againſt, amongſt, at, above, below, before, behind, beneath, beſides, between, beyond, by, concerning, for, from, in, into, on, on this ſide, on that ſide, of, out of, over, through, to, towards, under, unto, upon, up to, with, within, without. Several of theſe prepoſitions are affixed to words, ſo as to make compound words with them;

them; as afternoon, bygone, onward, outſhine, undergo, withſtand, &c. And beſides theſe, the following inſeparable prepoſitions make alſo compound words: a, be, counter, en, fore, mis, un, &c. as aſide, beſpeak, counteract, enforce, forewarn, miſtruſt, unbend, &c. but they are never uſed as prepoſitions by themſelves, except the *a*, in ſuch an expreſſion as this, *He is a writing*. — *N. B.* As prepoſitions are continually recurring in ſentences, their exact meaning ſhould be thoroughly learnt.

VIII. Interjections are ſhort words, or ſentences; and ſome of them even natural ſounds, which ſtrongly intimate ſome ſentiment, or paſſion of the mind. Such as wonder, expreſſing it thus; ſurpriſing! O ſtrange, hah!—Admiration; O! Oh! —Grief; ah! alas! wo is me!—Joy; well! I am glad! I give you joy! — Praiſe, O brave! well done!—Diſpraiſe; O vile, O baſe, O fie.—Laughter; ha, ha, he. — Calling; ho, ſoho, hallow.— Silence; huſh! ſilence! hark!——All interjections are emphatical words, and ſhould be uttered, not only with a ſtrong voice, but alſo with that tone of it, that naturally expreſs the paſſion, or ſentiment, ſignified by them. Once more,

IX. Conjunctions connect the different parts of ſentences together, and one ſentence with another; ſhewing at the ſame time the particular views, in which the parts, or ſentences which follow, refer to what has already been ſaid. Such is the uſe of the following conjunctions; and, alſo, both, neither, nor, either, or, though, although, yet, notwithſtanding, nevertheleſs, for, becauſe, therefore, wherefore, ſince that, that ſo, if, provided, unleſs, except, at leaſt, whether or not, however, namely, to wit, &c.

PART III.

Of SENTENCES.

THIS third part of Grammar called ſyntax, or conſtruction, ſhews how to join words together in ſentences, ſo as intelligibly to expreſs the thoughts of the ſpeaker by them. And the Engliſh ſyntax is, perhaps, the moſt ſimple and eaſy of any language in the world; for, to make a ſentence with Engliſh words, little more is neceſſary than to utter the words, which expreſs the ideas of the mind, in the order in which thoſe ideas ariſe there. In doing which, theſe following things ſhould be obſerved.

1. If an article accompanies a noun by itſelf; it ſhould immediately precede it. E. g. A man, the king; the men, the kings.

2. If the article and noun are accompanied with one, or more adjectives; the adjectives ſhould be inſerted between them; thus, A good man; the wiſe and juſt prince. Yet in ſuch a ſentence as the following, the adjective follows the noun. *A man, good in his morals. A man, good by the practice of beneficence.*

3. Two nouns, or a noun and pronoun, ſignifying the ſame perſon, or thing, are put in the ſame caſe. E. g. I the writer, wiſh thee the reader, every real good. Where I the writer, ſignifying the ſame perſon, are in the nominative caſe, preceding the verb; and thee the reader, are both in the ſame oblique caſe, following it. And even if a verb ſignifying being, poſture, or geſture, comes between ſuch nouns, or a noun and pronoun; they alſo are in the ſame caſe. E. g. *He is the ſovereign, he ſits as lord, ſhe walks as a queen.*

Where

Where he the ſovereign, he lord, and ſhe a queen, ſignifying the ſame perſons reſpectively, are all in the ſame nominative caſe.

4. All prepoſitions, whether the common caſual ones, as of, to, for, with, from, in, by; or any other whatſoever, have after them the oblique caſe of the noun, or pronoun, which they precede; and never the nominative caſe, as before obſerved: for example, Of me, to him, for her, through whom, above us, beneath them; and not, of I, to he, for ſhe, through who, above we, beneath they; all which are groſs improprieties.

5. The noun or pronoun that precedes the verb as its agent, or patient, is always in the nominative caſe; but that noun or pronoun which follows the verb, expreſſing its object, ſubject, or effect, is in the oblique caſe; as in theſe expreſſions, I viſited him, ſhe told her, he ſaw him, we love them, you pleaſe us, they reſpect you, &c. and not, me viſited he, her told ſhe, him ſaw he, &c. The only danger to ſtrangers of falling into ſuch improprieties, and thoſe mentioned in the preceding particular, is in the uſe of the perſonal pronouns, I, thou, he, ſhe, we, who, they; the oblique caſes of which, all differ from their nominatives, and both ſhould be uſed as directed by theſe two rules: but all other nouns, and pronouns have their nominatives and oblique caſes alike; and therefore there is no danger of uſing the one for the other.

6. The verb ſhould be of the ſame perſon, and number, with its nominative caſe. E. g. I read, we walk, they ſit; and not as ſome improperly ſpeak, I reads, we walks, they ſits: for all theſe laſt verbs are of the third perſon ſingular; whereas, not one of their nominative caſes is the third perſon ſingular, but the firſt perſon ſingular, and the firſt and third plural; and therefore, theſe laſt expreſſions are not grammatical.

7. Col-

7. Collective nouns, which in the ſingular number ſignify many; ſuch as the people, the company, the crew, may properly have their verbs, either in the ſingular, or plural number; as in theſe expreſſions, The people approves, or approve; the company orders, or order; the crew works, or work the ſhip.

8. Two or more nominatives ſingular ſhould have a verb plural, of the ſame perſon with the perſonal pronouns, that would properly expreſs both nominatives. E. g. William and I are friends, i. e. we are friends: You and George are wiſe, i. e. you are wiſe: Robert and John are good, i. e. they are good.

9. Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs, have often prepoſitions between them, and their following nouns. E. g. Nouns have, in theſe expreſſions; *The crown of the head, a bird in the hand.* Adjectives in theſe; *Worthy of honour, addicted to ſtudy, contented with his lot.* Pronouns in theſe; *Which of us? He with the hat:* and verbs in theſe; *He ſent for the general, he rode through the army.*

10. Verbs are often followed in a ſentence by the infinitive mood; thus, *he loves to walk, ſhe hates to lie, he was like to have fallen, ſhe is about,* or *going to write.* The infinitive mood alſo often follows both the verb, and its following noun, thus; *He deſired his friend to ſit down, he commanded his ſervants to attend.*

11. Time, and meaſure, are moſt commonly expreſs'd without prepoſitions. E. g. He lived ten years at London; ſhe was three months abſent; the houſe is ſixty feet long, forty feet wide, and fifty feet high.

12. A queſtion is commonly ſtated by putting the verb, or its auxiliary, before its nominative, thus; *Loves he to ride?* or thus, *Does he love to walk? What does he ſay? When will he come?*

Of

Of PUNCTUATION.

After this account of the conſtruction of ſentences, I ſhall now ſhew how they ſhould be pointed; and explain other marks that have relation to them, commonly uſed in writing, and printing.

In pointing ſentences, the comma is uſed, this (,); the ſemi-colon, this (;); the colon, this (:); the period, or full ſtop, this (.); the break, this (——); the point of interrogation, this (?); of admiration, this (!)

This (-) is the hyphen, uſed in dividing words into ſyllables, and compound words into their components; as in na-ture, vice-roy. This (ʌ) is the caret, ſignifying ſomething wanting ſhould come in there. This (') is the apoſtrophe, which intimates a letter is left out, as in 'tis, us'd; or the genitive, or poſſeſſive caſe, as king's, majeſty's. This () is the parentheſis, which includes ſomething which may be read or omitted, without interrupting the ſenſe. Theſe [] are the brackets, the contents of which ſhould be omitted, or tranſpoſed to ſome other place. And theſe { } are called braces, between which, words may be placed, which ſhall connect the words on their ſides.

The ſign of a paragraph, eſpecially in the Holy Scriptures, is this (¶); of a ſection, this (§); of a quotation in the beginning, and on the margin, this (“); and in the end of it, this (”).

The marks of reference to the margin, or bottom of the page, are, the aſteriſk, this (*), which alſo ſerves to fill up blanks; the obeliſk, this (†); the double obeliſk, this (‡); the parallel, this (‖); the index, this (☞); numeral figures, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. and alphabetical letters, a, b, c, d, &c.

The

The pauſe of the voice in reading, ſhould be as long at the comma, as while you could ſay, one; at the ſemi-colon, one, two; at the colon, one, two, three; at the full ſtop, break, interrogation, and admiration, one, two, three, four; at the end of the paragraph, while you could read one line; and of the ſection, while you could read two.

In pointing a compoſition, the following method ſeems to me, the moſt natural, and uſeful; viz. 1. That the ſmaller parts of a ſentence ſhould be pointed with commas, except the laſt. 2. If the ſmaller parts have particulars; each of them ſhould have a comma after them, except the laſt, which ſhould be pointed with a ſemi-colon. 3. So alſo ſhould premiſes, conditions, antecedents, be pointed, before you come to the conſequents. 4. The ſame rules ſhould be obſerved in pointing conſequents. 5. If at the end of them, the ſentence is compleat; it ſhould be ſtop'd with a period: But if ſomething is to be added by way of explication, illuſtration, proof, or argument; then 6. Inſtead of a period, a colon ſhould be uſed before this addition; which alſo ſhould be pointed according to the preceding rules; and at the end of it, ſhould be the period. Many of theſe directions are illuſtrated by the pointing of this very paſſage, where I am propoſing them; and generally, by the punctuation of this book.

Of the EMPHASIS *and* CADENCE.

Emphatical words are the moſt ſignificant, and important in a ſentence; which ſhould be diſtinguiſhed by pronouncing them more ſtrongly, than the other words of the ſame ſentence; which other words are ſaid to be uttered in cadence, becauſe the voice falls to a lower key in ſpeaking them, than in ſpeaking the emphatic words. —

By

By laying the emphaſis on the different words of a ſentence, different ſenſes will be conveyed by the ſame words. E. g. If in uttering this ſentence, *John is good*, the emphaſis be laid on *John*; it intimates he is ſo, whoever are not; if laid upon *is*, it ſignifies he is ſo, whoever may ſay the contrary; if upon *good*, it ſignifies he is ſo indeed, and not in ſhew only: But if the whole be delivered without emphaſis; nothing more is intimated than the obvious meaning of the propoſition. The different ſenſes, conveyed by laying the emphaſis upon the different words of the ſame ſentence, ſeems to ariſe from an antitheſis, which the emphaſis ſuggeſts; and which throws a ſtrong light upon the intention of the ſpeaker, in uttering it.

If there is an antitheſis in a ſentence; that word of it, that moſt directly points it out, is emphatical. Thus, in this antitheſis, *The things which are ſeen, are temporal; but the things which are* not *ſeen, are eternal*; the word *not* is emphatic; and in this, *He has ſuffered for ſin, the juſt, for the* únjuſt, *that he might bring us unto God*; the word *únjuſt* is emphatic: Where we may obſerve that the emphaſis even removes the accent from its proper, to an otherwiſe improper place; that the antitheſis may more fully appear.

Though all ſentences have not emphatic words, with regard to antitheſes; for many have no antitheſes in them, either expreſs'd, or underſtood; yet in all ſentences, there are ſome words of greater importance than others; upon which, in reading, and ſpeaking, the emphaſis ſhould be laid: Such are generally interjections, and nouns, and verbs, when alone. If nouns and verbs are accompanied with adjectives, and adverbs, eſpecially thoſe of quality; the ſtronger emphaſis ſhould be generally laid on theſe laſt; and the ſmaller words of a ſentence, ſuch as the articles, pronouns, auxiliary

verbs, prepoſitions, and conjunctions; if they be not obviouſly emphatical, ſhould be uttered in cadence; or with a lower voice. So alſo ſhould whole ſentences of leſs importance be uttered; ſuch as are only added as ſlight explications; and thoſe, in particular, that are incloſed in parentheſes. By this means, the ſenſe will be more ſtrongly conveyed; and a tireſome monotony will be agreeably avoided.

PART IV.

Of VERSIFICATION.

AN Engliſh verſe may conſiſt of two, three, or four lines, or more, if connected with harmonious numbers, and rhimes, till you come to a ſecond verſe, beginning, and proceeding in the ſame manner: Yet a ſingle line in a verſe, is alſo commonly called a verſe; and all the lines of a verſe together, a ſtanza,

Each line in a verſe conſiſts of ſyllables, diſpoſed in ſuch a manner as to be harmonious, or pleaſing to the ear.

This harmony ariſes from a due mixture, not ſo properly of long, and ſhort, as of ſtrong, and weak ſyllables: The accented ſyllables, and the emphatic monoſyllables being the ſtrong; and the unaccented ſyllables, and the monoſyllables in cadence, being the weak.

The ſyllables of a line may be divided into feet, which may conſiſt either of a ſtrong, and weak ſyllable, like the Latin Trochey; or of a weak, and ſtrong ſyllable, like the Iamb; or of a ſtrong, and two weak ſyllables, like the Dactyle; or of two

weak ſyllables, and a ſtrong, like the Anapæſt; or a foot may conſiſt only of one ſyllable, analogous to the Latin Cæſura.

Moſt of theſe feet are exemplified in theſe two lines, of ten ſyllables each.

Náture, and | náture's | law's, lay | híd in | níght: |
God ſaíd, | let New'|ton bé, | and áll | was líght. |

The two following lines conſiſt of feet which have two weak ſyllables, and one ſtrong one; or of Anapæſts; where the two weaker not being longer than the ſtrong ſyllable, a ſenſible briſkneſs, and rapidity is obſervable in them.

'Tis the voíce | of the ſlúg|gard, I heárd | him com-
plain, |
You have wák'd | me too ſoón; | I muſt ſlúm|ber
again. |

Verſes are connected with rhime, when the final ſyllable, or word of one line, ſounds like the final ſyllable, or word of another; as in the above lines, where *light* rhimes with *night*; and *again*, with *complain*.——If there be an harmonious diſpoſition of ſtrong, and weak ſyllables in lines, but no connecting rhimes; ſuch poetical productions are ſaid to be in blank verſe.

The lines of verſes may conſiſt of ſyllables, from two to fourteen; and in the ſame verſe, may be of unequal lengths; and may be connected with rhime, either every two together, and ſometimes three; or every other two, alternately; or the three firſt may be ſo connected, and then there may be a line, with which another ſhall rhime, after three lines like the three firſt, of the ſame ſtanza; as in the following.

How háppy ís the rúral clow'n,
Who, far remóv'd from noíſe of tow'n,
Contémns the glóries óf a crow'n;
And ín his ſáfe retreát,
Is pleáſed wíth his low' degreé;
Is rích in décent póverty';
From ſtríſe, from cáre, and bús'neſs freé;
At ónce both goód and greát.

And many other ways may this connection be carried on, either in imitation of others, or according to the writers own invention and fancy.

Finally. It is reckoned a great weakneſs, and imperfection in Engliſh verſes, to have any ſuperfluous words, or even unneceſſary ſyllables in them; ſuch as the terminations *eth*, and *ed*; the ſyllabical quantity of which, ſhould generally be done away, if poſſible; as by writing *loves*, for *loveth*; and *lov'd*, for *loved*. And in general, the more fully verſes are freighted with important ſenſe; and animated with ſtriking metaphors, pertinent ſimilies and alluſions, and lively ſallies of wit and humour; and the more highly they are decorated with propriety, dignity, and grace; the more excellent and perfect are they eſteemed, by good judges of poetry.

The END of the GRAMMAR.

Significant Initial Letters.

A. B. Artium Baccalaureus, *Batchelor of Arts.*
A. D. Anno Domini, *in the year of our Lord.*
A. M. Artium Magiſter, *Maſter of Arts.*
A. S. S. Antiquariorum Societatis Socius, *Fellow of the Society of the Antiquarians.*
B. A. Batchelor of Arts.
B. D. Batchelor of Divinity.
C. S. Cuſtos Sigilli, *Keeper of the Seal.*
C. P. S. Cuſtos Privati Sigilli, *Keeper of the Privy Seal.*
D. D. Doctor of Divinity.
E. g. Exempli gratia, *as for example.*
i. e. id eſt, *that is.*
F. R. S. Fellow of the Royal Society.
G. R. Georgius Rex, *King George.*
J. H. S. Jeſus Hominum Salvator, *Jeſus the Saviour of Men.*
L. L. D. Legum Doctor, *Doctor of Laws.*
M. A. Maſter of Arts.
M. D. Medicinæ Doctor, *Doctor of Phyſic.*
M. S. Memoriæ Sacrum, *Sacred to the Memory.*
N. B. Nota Bene, *mark well.*
N. S. New Stile.
N. T. New Teſtament.
O. S. Old Stile.
O. T. Old Teſtament.
P. S. Poſt ſcriptum, *Poſtſcript.*
q. d. quaſi dixiſſet, *as if he had ſaid.*
q. s. quantum ſufficit, *as much as is ſufficient.*
S. T. P. Sanctæ Theologiæ Profeſſor, *Profeſſor, or Doctor of Holy Divinity.*

Uſual

Uſual Abbreviations.

An. In the year. Anſwer.
Abp. Arch-Biſhop.
Adm^{l}. Admiral.
Adm^{rs}. Adminiſtrators.
Bar^{t}. Baronet.
Bp. Biſhop.
B^{r}. Brother.
Cant. Canticles.
Capt. Captain.
Chap. Chapter.
Cent. Centum, *an hundred.*
Cl. Clerk, Clergy-man.
Co. County, Company.
Col. Colonel.
Com^{r}. Commiſſioner.
D^{o}. Ditto, *the ſame.*
D^{r}. Doctor.
Honble. Honorable.
id. idem, *the ſame.*
ibid. ibidem, *in the ſame place.*
K^{t}. Knight.
L^{d}. Lord.
Ladp. Ladyſhip.
Math. Mathematics, Mathematicians.
M^{r}. Maſter, *pronounced* Miſter.
M^{rs}. Miſtreſs.
Meſſ^{rs}. Meſſieurs, Miſters.
Obj. Object, objection.
Parl^{t}. Parliament.
Per Cent. Per Centum, *by the hundred.*
Rev^{d}. Reverend.
R^{t}. Honble. Right Honorable.
Scil. Scilicet, *i. e.* ſcire licet, *to wit.*
S^{r}. Sir.
S^{t}. Saint.
Ver. Verſe.
Vid. Vide, *See.*
Viz. Videlicet, *i. e.* videre licet, *to wit.*
&c. et cætera, *and the reſt, and ſo forth.*

FINIS.